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April 30, 2015

Journal of Bacteriology

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Tn-seq of *Caulobacter crescentus* under uranium stress reveals genes essential for detoxification and stress tolerance.

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Running Title: Tn-seq of *Caulobacter* under uranium stress.

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ABSTRACT:

The ubiquitous aquatic bacterium *Caulobacter crescentus* is highly resistant to uranium (U) and facilitates U biomineralization, and thus holds promise as an agent of U bioremediation. To gain an understanding of how *C. crescentus* tolerates U, we employed transposon mutagenesis paired with deep sequencing (Tn-seq) in a global screen for genomic elements required for U resistance. Of the 3879 annotated genes in the *C. crescentus* genome, 37 were found to be specifically associated with fitness under U stress, 15 of which were subsequently tested through mutational analysis. Systematic deletion analysis revealed that mutants lacking outer membrane transporters (*rsaF_a* and *rsaF_b*), a stress-responsive transcription factor (*cztR*), or a ppGpp synthetase/hydrolase (*spoT*) exhibited a significantly lower survival rate under U stress. *RsaF_a* and *RsaF_b*, which are homologues of TolC in *E. coli*, have previously been shown to mediate S-layer export. Transcriptional analysis revealed upregulation of *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_b* by 4- and 10-fold, respectively, in the presence of U. We additionally show that *rsaF_a* mutants accumulated higher levels of U compared to wild type, with no significant increase in oxidative stress levels. Our results suggest a function for *RsaF_a* and *RsaF_b* in U efflux and/or maintenance of membrane integrity during U stress. In addition, we present data implicating CztR and SpoT in resistance to U stress. Together, our findings reveal novel gene targets that are key to understanding the molecular mechanisms of U resistance in *C. crescentus*.

41 **IMPORTANCE:**

42 *Caulobacter crescentus* is an aerobic bacterium that is highly resistant to uranium (U)
43 and has great potential to be used in U bioremediation, but its mechanisms of U resistance are
44 poorly understood. We conducted a Tn-seq screen to identify genes specifically required for U
45 resistance in *C. crescentus*. The genes that we identified have previously remained elusive using
46 other omic approaches and thus provide significant insight into the mechanisms of U resistance
47 by *C. crescentus*. In particular, we show that outer membrane transporters RsaF_a and RsaF_b,
48 previously known as part of the S-layer export machinery, may confer U resistance by U efflux
49 and/or maintaining membrane integrity during U stress.

INTRODUCTION:

Uranium (U) contamination is widespread and imposes significant concerns to environmental ecology and human health (1). Chemical and physical techniques for waste treatment or removal of U are challenging and expensive. A promising, microbially-mediated method for U remediation, *in situ* U immobilization, is more cost effective and environmentally friendly than conventional approaches (2). If we seek to task microbes with the cleanup of contaminated sites, an understanding of how microbes defend against U toxicity is crucial. Understanding these mechanisms is necessary for the optimization of strains intended for use as U biosensors (3) or for the purpose of bioremediation (2, 4, 5).

A great deal is known about various strategies used by microbes to transform and defend against extracellular U. These include reductive precipitation by outer membrane cytochromes, conductive pili, or spores (6-10), surface adsorption by EPS or S-layers (9, 11), or precipitation with phosphate (4, 5, 12, 13). However, mechanisms used by cells for combating *internal* U toxicity are poorly understood (14). Previous studies revealed upregulation of metal efflux pumps, NADH quinone oxidoreductases, or other reactive oxygen species (ROS) scavenging enzymes upon exposure to U in the sulfate-reducing bacterium *Desulfotomaculum reducens* (15), *E. coli* grown at low pH (16), and the plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* (17). General and membrane stress responses were particularly pronounced when *Shewanella oneidensis* was exposed to U (18), and nucleic acid and protein damage have been shown to represent the primary modes of U toxicity in *Desulfovibrio alaskensis* G20 (19). Phosphate transporters and cell wall proteins are known to be important for survival following U exposure for the budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (20), whereas thermoacidophilic archaea employ temporary degradation of cellular RNA as a dynamic mechanism for resisting U toxicity (21). However, there is still a significant

73 knowledge gap regarding the persistence of microbes in U-contaminated environments (9, 22), as
74 the mechanisms for responding to acute U toxicity are not necessarily the same as those that
75 enable survival and growth over a longer term.

76 We have chosen to focus on the aquatic organism *Caulobacter crescentus*, a widely-
77 distributed nonpathogenic bacterium that can survive in low-nutrient environments with great
78 potential to be exploited for the purpose of bioremediation (3, 23). *C. crescentus* is known to
79 tolerate high levels of U(VI) and is able to facilitate U biomineralization through the formation
80 of uranium phosphate precipitates (4). Transcriptomic and proteomic studies during U exposure
81 in *C. crescentus* revealed dozens of genes with significant changes in expression in response to
82 U; these genes do not appear to overlap substantially with those that are variably expressed in
83 response to other heavy metal stresses, such as cadmium and chromium, suggesting a divergent
84 cellular response to U(VI) (23, 24). This response manifests, in part, as a temporary arrest in cell
85 cycle progression and DNA replication, along with some cell filamentation (a possible
86 consequence of U-induced DNA damage) observed during growth recovery following U
87 detoxification (25). Proteins upregulated in response to U include the periplasmic protein UrcA,
88 a phytase enzyme, two-component signaling factors, and an ABC transporter. However,
89 individual deletion of these upregulated genes did not increase U susceptibility (23, 24),
90 indicating that these genes are not *required* for U tolerance. These results furthermore suggest
91 that the cellular response to U is complex and includes more than a direct response to acute
92 toxicity.

93 Here we use the Tn-seq approach to identify genes and gene products involved in U
94 tolerance in *C. crescentus*. Compared to conventional transcriptomic and proteomic techniques,
95 Tn-seq represents a novel tool for functional genomics that utilizes high-throughput, massively

parallel sequencing to uncover genes that contribute to cell fitness in a condition of interest (Fig. 1) (26, 27). The results presented here elucidate potential toxicity mechanisms of U and reveal novel genes and pathways important for growth and survival of *C. crescentus* in the presence of U.

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

Materials, bacterial strains, and growth conditions.

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO) unless otherwise noted. Peptone, yeast extract, and agar were purchased from Amresco (Solon, OH). Uranyl nitrate hexahydrate $[(\text{UO}_2)(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ was obtained from SPI Supplies (West Chester, PA). A stock solution of uranyl nitrate (100 mM) was prepared in 0.1 N nitric acid. All PCR reactions were conducted using iProof polymerase from Bio-Rad (Hercules, CA) supplemented with 5% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) according to manufacturer's instructions. *E. coli* WM3064 (Table S1) was maintained on solid LB medium supplemented with 300 μM diaminopimelic acid (DAP) and 1.5% agar. Liquid cultures were prepared in LB medium supplemented with 300 μM DAP. Where appropriate, LB was supplemented with kanamycin at 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ for both liquid and solid media. *Caulobacter crescentus* NA1000 was maintained on solid PYE medium (0.2% peptone, 0.1% yeast extract, 0.5 mM MgSO_4 , and 1 mM CaCl_2) supplemented with 1.5% agar (28). Liquid cultures were prepared in PYE medium. Buffered-PYE medium with 50 mM MES (pH 6.1) added was used for U spike-in experiments. Where applicable, PYE was supplemented with antibiotics at the following concentrations (for liquid/solid media, in $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$): kanamycin (5/20), spectinomycin (25/100), streptomycin (5/5), chloramphenicol (1/1), and tetracycline (1/2).

Construction of Tn-seq library and growth under U and Cd.

To construct the master library of *Tn5* mutants, the transposon delivery plasmid pXMCS2::*Tn5Pxyl* (29) was conjugated from an *E. coli* WM3064 donor strain into a *C. crescentus* *ΔrecA* strain. Transposition events were selected on PYE-agar plates containing kanamycin (which selects specifically for mutants that carry the *Tn5Pxyl* transposon) and 0.1% xylose (which circumvents polar effects by allowing expression of genes downstream of the transposon from the *C. crescentus* *xylX* promoter). We note that genes downstream from the transposon are no longer under the control of their native promoter and are constitutively expressed from the *xylX* promoter. Plates were incubated at 30 °C for 7 days. Two master libraries, each containing $\sim 1.5 \times 10^6$ *Tn5Pxyl* insertion mutants, were prepared. Sets of $\sim 10,000$ colonies were pooled, re-suspended in PYE medium containing 10% glycerol, and stored at -80 °C for subsequent selection on U and Cd plates.

For U or Cd selection, the frozen glycerol stocks were diluted in PYE medium and plated on PYE-agar plates containing 0.1% xylose and supplemented with either 250 μM uranyl nitrate (U library 1), 275 μM uranyl nitrate (U libraries 2 and 3), 12 μM cadmium sulfate, or no metal. Each stock was plated on enough plates to generate $\sim 15,000$ colonies with ~ 300 -500 colonies on each plate. The PYE-agar plates were incubated at 30 °C for 7 days. Each library contained $\sim 1.5 \times 10^6$ *Tn5* mutants, except U libraries 2 and 3, which had $\sim 2.5 \times 10^6$ and $\sim 5 \times 10^5$ *Tn5* mutants, respectively. Colonies were pooled and stored as described above.

DNA processing for sequencing.

From each library, 10 μ l of each frozen glycerol aliquot was pooled and cells were harvested by centrifugation at 10,000 \times g for 10 min. Genomic DNA was extracted from the cells using phenol-chloroform extraction according to standard procedures (30). One to three replicate DNA extractions were performed for each library (master, U, Cd, and no metal) and were processed and sequenced as described below.

One microgram of genomic DNA (gDNA) was sheared in a 120 μ l volume using a Covaris E210 machine (Woburn, MA) and a Covaris AFA microTUBE tube. Each sample was sheared for 150 s with the following conditions: 10% duty cycle, intensity 5, and 200 cycles per burst. Sheared samples were then cleaned and size-selected with a double Agencourt Ampure XP bead cleanup (Beckman-Coulter, Brea, CA). The first round of the cleanup used a 0.85:1 volume ratio of beads to sample; the second round used a 1.4:1 volume ratio. One microliter of the size-selected gDNA was run on an Agilent Bioanalyzer DNA 1000 chip (Santa Clara, CA) to confirm a mean fragment size distribution of 200-250 base pairs. Each sample was then treated with end repair and A-tailing enzymes as described in the NEBNext DNA Library Prep for Illumina sequencing (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) protocol. Following cleanup after A-tailing reactions, modified Illumina paired-end adapters were ligated to the DNA fragments. After adapter ligation, excess adapter and adapter dimer were removed with a 1:1 volume ratio of the Ampure XP beads. Samples were then amplified with Tn-specific and indexed primers (Table S2) using JumpStart Taq DNA polymerase (Sigma-Aldrich) in a 100 μ l volume. This step selected for and amplified DNA fragments containing transposon insertion sites. Thermal cycling conditions were as follows: 94 $^{\circ}$ C for 2 min, [94 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 s, 65 $^{\circ}$ C for 20 s, 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 s] \times 30, 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 10 min, 4 $^{\circ}$ C hold. PCR reactions were cleaned a final time with a 0.9:1 volume ratio of the Ampure XP beads and eluted in 25 μ l of TE buffer (10 mM Tris, 1 mM

EDTA, pH 8.0). One microliter of each sample was run on an Agilent Bioanalyzer DNA 1000 chip to confirm the presence of a library and the absence of adapter/primer dimer. When excess dimer was observed, an additional 0.85:1 volume ratio of Ampure XP bead cleanup was performed with Agilent chip QC repeated.

DNA sequencing and mapping to the genome.

DNA was sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2000 (San Diego, CA, 150 bp read length, paired-end). Reads from desired transposon insertions into the *C. crescentus* genome have an expected sequence composition comprising of 1) 5 ‘random’ nucleotides, 2) 35 bp corresponding to the terminal inverted repeat of the *Tn5* transposon, 3) 110 bp derived from the *C. crescentus* genome and/or read-through into the Illumina sequencing adapter. Reads beginning with the transposon *Tn5* sequence were identified using Cutadapt (31). *Tn5* sequence and any detectable sequences derived from Illumina sequencing adapters were removed using Cutadapt, leaving DNA corresponding to insertion sites in the *C. crescentus* genome. Trimmed sequences were subject to quality checking using Trimmomatic (32) to remove trailing sequences with a sliding window average quality score of 15 or less. Trimmed sequences were then aligned to the *Caulobacter crescentus* NA1000 reference genome sequence (NC_011916.1) using BWA (33). Bam alignment files were converted to BedGraph (reads vs. genome position) for viewing using custom Perl scripts. Transposon insertion sites were identified as the mapped location of the first base position of sequencing strings after trimming of the *Tn5* end sequences. Statistics from the sequencing analysis are summarized in Table 1.

Data analysis for U specific essentiality.

The open-source, web-based software ESSENTIALS (34) was used to analyze and compare data from the test libraries (U, Cd, no metal) to the control master libraries. For each pairwise analysis, BedGraph files for replicates originating from a single test library of mutants were compared to BedGraph files from the control master libraries. The BedGraph files were analyzed using the genome of *Caulobacter crescentus* NA1000 (NC_011916.1) with default parameters, including use of “truncated.ppt” for truncation of the 3’ end of genes, use of Loess genomic position bias removal, TMM read count normalization, unpaired (qCML) analysis, tagwise dispersion modeling of variance with a value of 5 for prior.n smoothing, and BH p-value adjustment. Library sizes were inputted as 1,500,000. Normalized reads/gene, logFC (log₂ fold change in normalized total insertions per gene compared to the master libraries), and adjusted p-values were outputted from the software (Table S3).

For heat map analysis, the raw counts of total insertions per gene were normalized using the ESSENTIALS program with the master libraries as the reference data sets and all the test libraries as the test sets. The heat map was generated using the default setting in the R heatmap function for unsupervised hierarchical clustering.

In order to identify genes that have lower fitness under each test condition compared to the master libraries, one needs to assign significant logFC and p-value cut-offs. Based on known genes that are required for Cd survival (35) (Table S4), we used the Cd data set to determine the logFC (< -0.9) and p-value (< 0.05) cut-offs. Genes previously identified as high-fitness or essential in the genome of *C. crescentus* (29) were removed from further analysis due to potential complications in analyzing whether U susceptibility for mutants in these genes is due to poor fitness in general or a U-specific defect.

Genes with significantly lower fitness in U library 2, but not in the no metal or Cd libraries were identified as U specific gene candidates (Table 2, Table S5). U library 2 was used as the primary library because it had the most number of replicates and the most reproducible data among replicates (data not shown). The U specific gene candidates identified based on U library 2 were further divided into three regimes based on their degree of prevalence in the other two U libraries: the top regime comprised genes that had significantly lower fitness in all 3 U mutant libraries, while the middle and bottom regimes had genes that had significantly lower fitness in 2 of the U libraries and in only 1 library (U library 2), respectively.

Construction of deletion mutants.

For construction of clean deletion mutants, ~500 bp regions upstream and downstream of a given gene were PCR amplified using primers listed in Table S2. A three-way Gibson assembly (Clontech In-Fusion HD Cloning Plus kit, Mountain View, CA) of the upstream and downstream fragments into *Hind*III and *Eco*RI sites of pNPTS138 generated the plasmids listed in Table S1. The sequences of the plasmids were confirmed by DNA sequencing. In-frame deletion of a gene was generated using the respective plasmid through a standard homologous recombination method as previously described (36, 37).

For construction of mutants lacking *rsaA*, a Tet^R cassette was amplified from pKO3 (38) using *rsaAtet_for* and *rsaAtet_rev* primers (Table S2) and inserted into the *Nde*I site of pMCY04 (between the upstream and downstream flanking regions of *rsaA*) using Gibson assembly to generate pMCY04a. In-frame replacement of *rsaA* with the Tet^R cassette was generated using pMCY04a as previously described (38). This method was used because of difficulties in

obtaining clean deletions of *rsaA* under *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_b* mutant backgrounds due to unknown reasons.

U survival assay.

Strains of *C. crescentus* were pre-cultured in 2 ml of PYE supplemented with appropriate antibiotic(s) from single colonies at 30 °C overnight. Cells were then diluted to an initial OD₆₀₀ of 0.2 in PYE medium and cultured until OD₆₀₀ reached ~0.4-0.6 (late exponential phase). Cells were harvested, washed, and resuspended in PIPES buffer (50 mM PIPES, pH 7.0) to a final OD₆₀₀ of 0.5. Uranyl nitrate was added to the suspensions to a final concentration of 50 µM and incubated at room temperature (RT). Negative control without U was also included. After 1 h of U exposure, aliquots were removed, serial dilutions of 10¹ to 10⁶ of the aliquots were prepared, and 5 µL of each dilution were spotted onto PYE-agar. After 2 days of incubation at 30 °C, colony forming units (CFU) were determined. Fold of cell death was calculated by dividing the CFU/ml from assays without U by that with U. At least 4 biological replicates were included for each assay.

Growth in buffered PYE with U spike-in.

C. crescentus cells were pre-cultured from single colonies in 500 µL of PYE supplemented with appropriate antibiotic(s) at 30 °C for 8 h. Cells were then diluted to an initial OD₆₀₀ of 0.001 in PYE with appropriate antibiotic(s) and cultured for 16 h until the OD₆₀₀ was about 0.6 (late exponential phase). Cells were harvested, spent medium was removed, and cells were inoculated into PYE medium supplemented with a final concentration of 50 mM MES pH 6.1 to an initial OD₆₀₀ of 0.02. MES buffer was added to maintain pH; without buffering, the

medium pH would decrease upon addition of uranyl nitrate due to U hydrolysis and the nitric acid present in the U stock solution. Cells were cultured at 30 °C, 220 rpm until OD₆₀₀ reached 0.06 (early exponential phase), at which point uranyl nitrate was added to a final concentration of 350 µM. Controls without U addition were included. Cell density was monitored by OD₆₀₀ and biological triplicates were included. Given that no significant cell elongation was observed during growth of *C. crescentus* in buffered-PYE containing U (data not shown), doubling times were estimated based on OD₆₀₀ values.

Gene expression by Nanostring.

C. crescentus NA1000 and *rsaF_a* mutant cells were grown in MES-buffered PYE medium as described above with U spiked in at early exponential phase. After 30 min of U exposure, 10 ml of cells was removed and transcription was immediately stopped by addition of 1.25 ml of a solution of 5% phenol/95% ethanol on ice. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4 °C and total RNA was extracted from cells using TRIzol (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) according to manufacturer's instructions. Samples were prepared in biological triplicates. Nanostring analysis to determine log₂ expression levels was conducted as described elsewhere (39). Nanostring probes used for mRNA detection are listed in Table S6.

Cellular accumulation of U.

Cells were grown, washed, and re-suspended in PIPES buffer as described for the U survival assay above. Uranyl nitrate was added to the suspensions to a final concentration of 100 µM and incubated at RT for 30 min. Cell suspension was centrifuged at 20,000 x g for 5 min and the supernatant was collected and analyzed for U content using the ArsenazoIII colorimetric

assay as described previously (4, 40). An abiotic control was also performed without addition of cells to control for abiotic U precipitation. All assays were performed in biological triplicates. The amount of U accumulated by the cells was calculated as follows:

$$(\text{U accumulation}) = (\text{total U}) - (\text{abiotic U precipitate}) - (\text{U in supernatant})$$

Determination of antimicrobial sensitivity by agar disk diffusion assays.

C. crescentus NA1000, *rsaF_a* mutant, *rsaF_b* mutant, and *rsaF_aF_b* double mutant cells were grown in PYE medium to exponential phase. Cultures were normalized and adjusted to OD₆₀₀ of 0.3 and 100 µl was plated on PYE-agar. Filter paper disks with a diameter of 7 mm were placed on the agar with the following compounds (volume, concentration) pipetted onto a disk: tetracycline (5 µl, 50 µg/ml), cadmium sulfate (10 µl, 40 mM), uranyl nitrate (10 µl, 200 mM), SDS (5 µl, 5% (w/v)), or hydrogen peroxide (5 µl, 100 mM). Plates were incubated at 30 °C for 2 days. Pictures of the agar plates were taken using a ChemiDoc imager (Bio-Rad) and diameters of zones of inhibition were measured using ImageJ (41).

U biomineralization assay.

The U biomineralization assay was conducted as previously described (4). Briefly, cells grown in PYE to late exponential phase were harvested, washed once with 10 mM NaCl, and re-suspended in PIPES buffer to a final OD₆₀₀ of 0.5. Biomineralization assays were started by the addition of glycerol-2-phosphate and uranyl nitrate to final concentrations of 5 mM and 500 µM, respectively, and incubated at 30 °C. At given assay time points, aliquots were removed to quantitate soluble U using the Arsenazo III colorimetric assay and to determine CFU.

RESULTS:

Tn-seq screen for U sensitive mutants.

In our Tn-seq screening scheme (Fig. 1), master libraries of *Tn5* mutants were first generated by selection on PYE-kanamycin plates according to Christen et al. (29). These master libraries were subsequently exposed to each of three conditions on PYE plates to generate the experimental libraries: 1) uranyl nitrate (U) at 250 or 275 μ M, 2) cadmium sulfate (Cd) at 12 μ M, or 3) no metal. The concentrations of U and Cd were chosen as the maximum concentrations in which the wild type *C. crescentus* strain did not exhibit a significant growth defect on PYE-agar supplemented with the given metal (data not shown). *Tn5* mutant generation and selection on U were performed in two steps due to observed incompatibility between U and kanamycin selection, presumably due to chemical interactions that block antibiotic activity when U and kanamycin are used concurrently (data not shown). The ‘no metal’ condition identifies mutants that have lower fitness due to conditions endured during the 2nd plating step, such as freeze-thaw. The Cd condition controls for genes that are involved in tolerance to heavy metal stress in general rather than U-specific stress. Each of the libraries obtained in this study contained $\sim 10^6$ colonies in order to obtain enough mutants to saturate the genome (29).

Illumina Hi-seq was used to determine the genomic distributions of *Tn5* insertions for each library (29). One to three replicates of genomic DNA from a single library were isolated and sequenced to test the reproducibility of our method. Of the 4-10 million reads generated for each replicate, 77-91% passed initial filtering, demonstrating that the reads from the Hi-seq were of high quality (Table 1). However, only 11-64% of the total reads were mapped to the *C. crescentus* genome; for reasons unclear to us, the majority of the remaining reads mapped to the pXMCS2::*Tn5Pxyl* plasmid used for transposon mutagenesis. Less than 1% of reads were

unmapped, representing non-specific PCR products. Despite the low proportion of mapped reads, ~100,000 – 300,000 unique insertion sites (*i.e.*, one insertion for every 12-36 bps on average) are represented in each data set, which is comparable to the insertion frequencies reported in other Tn-seq studies (42-44). By plotting the distribution of unique insertions as a function of gene length for every *C. crescentus* ORF, we were able to determine whether transposon insertions that are underrepresented in each data set correspond to the set of essential or fitness-relevant genes previously identified for *C. crescentus* (29) and thereby evaluate the reliability of the transposon mutagenesis scheme. We found that $96 \pm 4\%$ of *C. crescentus* ORFs identified as essential in the Christen et al. Tn-seq screen (29) are found within the quartile of *C. crescentus* genes with the lowest proportion of unique insertions per unit gene length in each data set (Fig. S1). These results demonstrate the integrity of each data set and validate the set of genes previously found to contribute substantially to fitness or viability.

Using ESSENTIALS, an open-source, web-based algorithm (34), we compared and normalized data from each experimental library (U library 1, 2, 3, Cd, no metal) to data obtained from the master libraries in a pairwise fashion (test library vs. master libraries). This analysis enabled determination of insertion frequency (transposon insertions/gene) for each gene and the fold change in insertion frequency for every gene in each experimental condition relative to the master libraries. Heat map representation of all normalized data sets revealed that replicates from the same experimental library clustered together, showing high reproducibility among biological replicates (Fig. S2). The 3 U libraries were only loosely clustered, which is likely attributed to the differences in U concentration (250 μ M used in U library 1 compared to 275 μ M in U libraries 2 and 3) and mutant library size (0.5×10^6 mutants in U library 3 compared to $1.5 - 2.5 \times 10^6$ mutants in U libraries 1 and 2).

We define U-specific fitness genes as those ORFs that exclusively exhibit lower insertion frequencies in the U libraries compared to the master libraries (Fig. 2). The Cd data set was used to assign cut-offs for logFC (< -0.9) and p-values (< 0.05) representing lower insertion frequency based on genes that are known to be required for fitness in the presence of Cd (35) (Table S4). Using these criteria, we identified 37 U-specific candidates (Table S5). We note that these candidates are not those with the largest differences in insertion frequency between the master and U libraries; the more extreme outliers were eliminated because they were also extreme outliers in the Cd and no metal data sets and likely represent a category of genes that affect survival during the second plating step. From the list of 37 U-specific candidates, we selected 15 candidate genes for further study with priority toward those genes identified in all 3 U libraries (Table 2). Mutants of each of the 15 genes were obtained (Table S1) and first tested for their ability to grow in the presence of PYE supplemented with 300 μ M uranyl nitrate without pH buffering (Fig. S3), conditions similar to those used in the Tn-seq screen. Results revealed that 10 of the 15 mutants exhibited a growth defect in the presence of U relative to wild type. We later discovered that the pH of PYE decreases from 6.5 to 5.7 with addition of 350 μ M uranyl nitrate, affecting growth phenotypes (25). To uncouple U response from changes in pH and growth conditions, we tested the ability of each mutant to survive U exposure under buffered conditions (Fig. 3), and found that 4 of the 15 mutants showed significantly higher U susceptibility than wild type. These four mutants will be discussed in the following sections.

rsaF_a and rsaF_b are important for U fitness.

Of the candidates tested, *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_b* mutants were observed to have the most significant reduction in CFU/ml in the U survival assay, with a ~ 10 fold lower survival rate

compared to the wild type when exposed to U. While the *rsaF_aF_b* double mutant showed a similar reduction in survival rate as the single mutants, it exhibited a survival defect even in the absence of U, unlike the single mutants, suggesting that the double mutant had poor fitness in general (Fig. 3). *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_b* are two homologous genes encoding for the outer membrane proteins RsaF_a and RsaF_b that are part of the type I protein translocation pathway for exporting the highly abundant S-layer protein RsaA to the cell surface of *C. crescentus* (45). The fact that *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_b* are located 322 kb apart in the genome and that we were able to identify both genes in our Tn-seq screen suggests that they are individually critical for U tolerance. Furthermore, expression analysis revealed that *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_b* transcripts are upregulated ~4-fold and ~10-fold, respectively, during growth in buffered PYE by the addition of 350 μ M U (Fig. 4), implying a concerted regulatory response for the RsaF transport system in U resistance.

To confirm that these survival defects are not the result of a compromised S-layer, we tested U susceptibility of *rsaA*, *rsaD*, and *rsaE* null mutants, which are deficient in various factors required for S-layer biogenesis (Fig. 3). RsaA is the structural protein that comprises the S-layer, and RsaD and RsaE are the ATP-binding ABC transporter and membrane fusion protein, respectively, that, together with RsaF, form the channel to export RsaA across the cell envelope (46); all mutants were previously shown to be deficient in S-layer production (45, 46). In contrast to the RsaF mutants, the *rsaA*, *rsaD*, and *rsaE* null mutants showed similar CFU/ml as compared to wild type in the presence of U, suggesting that 1) the S-layer *per se* does not confer U resistance and 2) RsaD and RsaE are not involved in U tolerance, indicating that the mechanism of U tolerance does not rely on components of the S-layer transport system other than RsaF.

In addition to cell survival, *rsaF* mutants were tested for U tolerance during growth in buffered PYE medium in a spike-in experiment, where U was added during early exponential phase (Fig. 5, Fig. S4). We observed that the *rsaF_b* mutant did not exhibit any significant change in doubling time with or without U, whereas the *rsaF_a* mutant exhibited an increase in doubling time compared to wild type whether or not U was added, indicating a general (U-independent) growth defect. Unexpectedly, the *rsaF_aF_b* double mutant reversed this defect; in the absence of U, the double mutant grew at a rate only slightly slower than the wild type. The double mutant still exhibited a significant increase in doubling time in U-containing medium compared to wild type, suggesting that RsaF_a, but not RsaF_b, is needed for U tolerance during growth. The unexpected lack of direct correlation between growth and survival phenotypes in the *rsaF* mutants (compare Figs. 3 & 5) indicates that mechanisms of U toxicity during active growth and the survival assay are different. The cause of the general growth defect observed for the *rsaF_a* mutant is unclear.

To determine whether the increased U sensitivity observed in mutants lacking one or both RsaF subunits is an indirect consequence of intracellular accumulation of RsaA, we prepared *rsaA* gene deletions in the *rsaF_a*, *rsaF_b* and *rsaF_aF_b* mutant backgrounds and measured the change, if any, in U tolerance in survival and growth assays. In the survival assay, all three of the deletion strains constructed (*rsaF_arsaA*, *rsaF_brsaA*, and *rsaF_aF_brsaA*) showed survival rates in the presence of U similar to those of their respective *rsaA*⁺ parents (~10²- to 10³-fold more cell death relative to the no-U control), suggesting that U sensitivity is not caused or exacerbated by RsaA accumulation (Fig. S5A). However, we did observe that the U-independent survival defect of the *rsaF_aF_b* double mutant (Fig. 3, Fig. S5A) was completely suppressed by the deletion of *rsaA*. This result demonstrates that intracellular RsaA accumulation contributes to

the general survival defect of the *rsaF_aF_b* mutant. In the growth assay, the *rsaF_arsaA* mutant displayed a prolonged doubling time relative to the *rsaF_a* single mutant regardless of U addition, suggesting that the slow growth of this strain is not caused by cytoplasmic RsaA (Fig. S5B). Interestingly, the *rsaF_aF_brsaA* triple mutant grew slightly better than the *rsaF_aF_b* mutant both in the presence and in the absence of U (Fig. S5B), indicating that cytoplasmic RsaA accumulation may indeed slow growth in cells lacking RsaF activity. We therefore used the *rsaF_aF_brsaA* triple mutant in place of the *rsaF_aF_b* double mutant in subsequent U uptake experiments, in order to avoid complications in interpretation due to the effects of intracellular RsaA accumulation.

Finally, to confirm the results of our Tn-seq experiment, we examined the ability of the *rsaF_aF_brsaA* triple mutant to survive on solid PYE-agar containing either 300 μ M uranyl nitrate, 12 μ M cadmium sulfate, or no metal (Fig. S5C). While wild-type *C. crescentus* exhibited full survival under all conditions tested, the *rsaF_aF_brsaA* mutant exhibited a survival defect in the presence of U ($\sim 10^2$ fold cell death), but not Cd or the no metal control. In contrast, a deletion mutant of the Cd efflux transporter *ccna_02807* exhibited a survival defect in the presence of Cd, but not U or the no metal control. These results validated the results of the Tn-seq screen from which mutants in the *rsaF* system were identified.

RsaF resembles TolC from E. coli.

Smit and coworkers have previously reported that the two RsaF proteins are both homologues of TolC, a multifunctional *E. coli* outer membrane protein known to interact with several efflux pump partners in transporting a variety of compounds (including antibiotics and metals) from the cytoplasm to outside the cell (45). A BLAST search of the *C. crescentus* genome indicates that RsaF_a and RsaF_b have the most significant identity to TolC with sequence

identities of 23% and 26% (87% coverage), respectively (47). Given the evolutionary relationship with the TolC efflux pump, we hypothesized that RsaF_a and RsaF_b may confer U tolerance by negotiating the export of U through an RsaF-dependent pathway that can be genetically separated from S-layer biogenesis.

To test this hypothesis, we quantified U accumulation in wild type and the *rsaF* mutants (Fig. 6). We reasoned that higher levels of U accumulation should be observed in the *rsaF* mutants (relative to wild type) if the TolC-like RsaF proteins play a role in U efflux. Consistent with this prediction, the *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_aF_brsaA* mutants exhibited ~30% and ~20% higher U accumulation, respectively, than the wild type after 30-min of U exposure. The increase in U accumulation in these strains cannot be attributed to S-layer perturbation, since the *rsaA* single mutant exhibited the same amount of U accumulation as the wild type. Since the *rsaF_b* mutant did not exhibit increased U accumulation, the observations together suggest that RsaF_a may play a specific role in the prevention of U accumulation in *C. crescentus*. However, we cannot rule out the possibility that the higher U accumulation observed in the *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_aF_brsaA* mutants could be due to defects in outer membrane integrity. Attempts to measure U efflux were not successful (data not shown), which may be due to potential U precipitation or cell wall adsorption.

To determine whether the *C. crescentus* *rsaF* system could behave similarly to a TolC-like efflux system, the susceptibility of the *rsaF* mutant strains against several antimicrobial substrates of TolC-utilizing type I secretion systems (48) was determined using a disk diffusion antibiotic sensitivity assay (Fig. 7). All three *rsaF* mutants showed larger zones of growth inhibition in the presence of tetracycline or U compared to the wild type strain. Mutants of *rsaF_a* and *rsaF_aF_b*, but not *rsaF_b* alone showed larger inhibition zones in the presence of Cd or SDS.

Thus, RsaF_a appears to be the primary factor involved in resistance to these two compounds. We note that Cd sensitivity was only observed in the disk diffusion assay, but not under the conditions of the Tn-seq screen (Fig. S5C), which is likely due to higher Cd concentrations in the disk diffusion assay, resulting in increased sensitivity. Together, these results demonstrate that *rsaF* mutants show broad antimicrobial susceptibility that is not limited to U, similar to TolC in *E. coli*. The *rsaF* mutants were also tested for susceptibility to chloramphenicol, ethidium bromide, zinc, and chromium and exhibited the same degree of susceptibility as wild type (data not shown). The mechanisms of antimicrobial selectivity by the *rsaF* system, however, are currently unclear.

Previous reports indicate that the lack of TolC can induce oxidative stress in *E. coli* (49). Reasoning that this confounding effect could at least partially account for the apparent U sensitivity of *rsaF* mutants, we tested whether the deletion of *rsaF_a* leads to an increase in oxidative stress in *C. crescentus*. To do this, we measured the transcription of oxidative stress genes in wild type and the *rsaF_a* mutant grown in buffered PYE with and without U (Fig. S6A). Results indicated that the expression levels of key oxidative stress genes (*sodB*, *katG*, *oxyR*, *dps*) are not significantly changed in the *rsaF_a* mutant, suggesting that deletion of *rsaF_a* is not sufficient to induce an oxidative stress response and that U toxicity is not an indirect effect of increased oxidative stress in the *rsaF_a* mutant. Consistently, all *rsaF* mutants tested showed similar susceptibility to hydrogen peroxide stress compared to the wild type in the disk diffusion assay (Fig. 7). In addition, we note that genes involved in heat shock, DNA damage, and outer membrane stress (e.g., *LpxC*) (Fig. S6B, C, and D, respectively) also exhibited similar expression levels between wild type and the *rsaF_a* mutant, indicating that the loss of RsaF_a does not cause activation of common cytoplasmic or envelope stress responses. Significantly, the

expression of LpxC, which is involved in LPS biosynthesis (50), is also unchanged, arguing against significant remodeling of the LPS. However, we cannot conclusively rule out the possibility that the lack of *rsaF_a* itself in some way affects the composition and/or properties of the outer membrane.

CztR-cztA.

The *cztR* and *cztA* genes were also significant hits in our Tn-seq screen. The *cztR* gene encodes a LysR family transcriptional regulator that, along with the putative CztA transporter, has been implicated in response to Zn limitation and Cd exposure (51). To characterize the contribution of CztRA to U tolerance, we performed growth and survival assays in strains lacking *cztR* or *cztA*. Mutant lacking *cztR* exhibited lower fitness upon U exposure, with ~10 fold increase in cell death compared to wild type (Fig. 3). Consistently, the *cztR* mutant exhibited a U-dependent growth defect, with a significant increase in doubling time in the presence of U compared to wild type (Fig. 5, Fig. S4). Conversely, no discernable changes in cell survival or U sensitivity in growth were apparent following deletion of *cztA* (Figs. 3 & 5, Fig. S4). There was no significant change in *cztR* expression upon U exposure (Fig. 4). An ~8-fold increase in *cztA* expression occurs in the presence of uranyl nitrate; however, this increase may be due to nitrate present, since an ~8-fold increase in *cztA* expression also occurred in the presence of potassium nitrate (data not shown). Although the CztRA system may not be specifically induced by U, it clearly plays a role in U fitness both under survival and growth conditions. Given its previously reported function in Cd resistance (35, 51), the CztRA system may be involved in general heavy metal stress response.

spoT.

A mutant lacking *spoT* was observed to have a lower fitness with U, with an additional ~10-fold reduction in CFU/ml upon U exposure compared to wild type (Fig. 3). The *spoT* gene encodes a ppGpp hydrolase/synthetase that was previously shown to be involved in the stringent response in many bacteria including *C. crescentus* and *E. coli* (52, 53). Deletion of *spoT* in *C. crescentus* resulted in cell death upon carbon starvation due to unconstrained chromosome replication (54). In order to test whether the cell death observed with the *spoT* mutant upon U exposure is related to carbon starvation, we repeated the U survival assay in the presence of glucose (Fig. 8). The *spoT* mutant showed a similar survival rate as wild type upon U exposure in the presence of glucose, suggesting that the observed U defect in the absence of glucose is a consequence of carbon starvation rather than U-specific toxicity. We note that U toxicity is somewhat mitigated by the presence of glucose, presumably due to complexation with U. Consistently, the growth assay indicated that the doubling time of the *spoT* mutant is similar to wild type regardless of the presence of U (Fig. 5), and in the wild type strain, the expression level of *spoT* remained unaltered by U (Fig. 4). Thus, *spoT* appears to be important for U tolerance only under carbon starvation conditions, likely resulting from enhanced U-toxicity to cells with unchecked DNA replication (54).

Biominingeralization activity of mutants.

We have previously found that *C. crescentus* actively biomineralizes U via its native phosphatase activity and that perturbed biomineralization activity causes survival defects during U exposure (4). To test whether the U-sensitive mutants identified above retain their U biomineralization activity, we performed the U biomineralization assay using glycerol-2-

phosphate as the phosphate source for the *rsaF*, *czrR*, *czrA*, and *spoT* mutants (Fig. 9A). The Δ *phoY* strain, which lacks biomineralization activity and exhibits a severe survival defect in the presence of U (4), was included as a negative control. All mutant strains tested had similar activity to wild type with more than 85% of the U mineralized after 6 h, demonstrating that none of the strains had perturbed U biomineralization activity. Cell survival analysis under the U biomineralization condition (Fig. 9B) showed that all strains, with the exception of the *czrA* mutant, had a ~10 fold reduction in CFU/ml compared to wild type, indicating that U sensitivity in these strains is independent of U biomineralization. These cell survival trends are similar to those observed under non-mineralizing conditions (Fig. 3). We note that the effective U toxicity under mineralizing conditions is much lower than that under non-mineralizing conditions, presumably due to U complexation with glycerol-2-phosphate (4). Cell death exhibited by the Δ *phoY* control strain was highest (~100 fold), showing that lack of biomineralization activity caused the most severe susceptibility to U under mineralizing conditions.

DISCUSSION:

Tn-seq is a powerful whole-genome genotypic screening method that has recently been widely employed to identify genes that are critical for survival upon exposure to antibiotics and various other chemical stresses (27, 42, 55). We have performed Tn-seq and identified transposon insertions in 37 distinct genes that result in reduced fitness under U stress, 15 of which we chose for further study. Individual single mutants lacking each of these 15 genes were tested for U susceptibility, and 10 of these mutants were found to exhibit a growth defect in unbuffered PYE supplemented with U, with only 4 mutants confirmed to have a U survival defect in a buffered solution. Besides the potential difference in U susceptibility under different testing

conditions, the low correlation between survival phenotype and Tn-seq fitness could also be due to the low stringency used in selecting candidate genes from our screen. Almost all of the genes that we identified had logFC values between 1 and 2 compared to the master libraries, corresponding to 2- to 4-fold reductions in fitness. These values are significantly lower than values found in other Tn-seq studies examining antibiotic resistance and other environmental stresses (27, 42, 55). Gallagher et al. reported that genes with weak negative selection of 2.5- to 5-fold reduction have a low correlation between phenotype and Tn-seq fitness (42). Given that similar numbers of unique insertions are present in our data sets compared to other Tn-seq studies, we believe that the low fitness values are indicative of the fact that *C. crescentus* has a broad and relatively graded response to U toxicity. Consistent with this notion, our previous proteomic and transcriptomic studies (23, 24) also indicate that a small group of specialized genes cannot account for U resistance. Instead, the response occurs on a global level, involving many genes from different pathways serving functions that may act redundantly to mitigate U toxicity. These results highlight the need to conduct detailed phenotypic analysis of mutants following Tn-seq screening.

Despite the weak negative selection by U, the Tn-seq screen was successful in identifying outer membrane transporters RsaF_a and RsaF_b, homologues of TolC in *E. coli*, as factors important for U resistance. Deletion of *rsaF_a* resulted in higher U susceptibility as well as higher levels of U accumulation. In contrast, the *rsaF_b* mutant did not show a significant U growth defect or higher U accumulation. We also observed that the single *rsaF_a* deletion had higher U susceptibility and accumulation of U as compared to the *rsaF_aF_b* double mutant. The reason for these results is unclear, but may reflect differential gene expression when *rsaF_a* alone is disrupted versus both genes, leading to different pleiotropic effects. Although RsaF_a and RsaF_b

appear to have redundant functions in S-layer export in *C. crescentus* (45), our results suggest that RsaF_a plays a dominant role in U resistance. Like TolC, RsaF likely exists exclusively as a trimer in the OM, although it is currently unclear whether it preferentially forms homotrimers or heterotrimers consisting of both RsaF_a and RsaF_b. Our ongoing efforts focus on building functional RsaF structures computationally and experimentally and testing the preference of different RsaF models/compositions toward drugs/cations.

Given the results from our study, we speculate that RsaF behaves like TolC and acts as an outer membrane efflux pump to enable excretion of a variety of antimicrobials and metals, including U. The increased susceptibility of *rsaF* mutants to tetracycline, cadmium, and SDS, compounds known to be exported via type I secretion systems (48, 56, 57), suggests that RsaF may be involved in active export of these antimicrobial compounds via a mechanism similar to TolC (48). TolC proteins are known to interact with various inner membrane translocases/pumps, consisting of an adaptor protein and an energy-providing protein, typically an ATP-binding cassette protein or proton antiporter of the RND or MFS superfamily (58), which provide specificity to export particular substrates. In *E. coli*, TolC is multifunctional and known to interact with several translocases/pumps, including HlyBD for hemolysin toxin secretion and AcrAB for multidrug efflux (58). In *C. crescentus*, Smit and coworkers previously identified RsaF_a and RsaF_b as the TolC-like proteins responsible for export of the S-layer protein RsaA and recently the S-layer associated metalloprotease SapA via the translocase comprised of RsaDE (45, 46, 59). U is unlikely to use the same export system as the S-layer protein, however, given that deletion of RsaD and RsaE do not exhibit increased U susceptibility. Instead, we hypothesize that RsaF may interact with other translocases/pumps to export compounds other than protein, such as antibiotics and metals. There are several annotated type I

598 pumps for multidrug (*ccna_01261*, *ccna_01865*, *ccna_03218*) and metal (*ncc/czr* and *ncz*
599 systems for Ni/Cd/Co/Zn) export in the *C. crescentus* genome for which the outer membrane
600 export partner is unknown (57, 60). In addition, our Tn-seq screen identified a putative
601 multidrug resistance protein B (CCNA_03831) as one of the targets with low U fitness (Table
602 S5). These proteins serve as potential inner membrane module candidates that interface with
603 RsaF to actively export antibiotics and metals via TolC-like systems, although further work is
604 needed to determine if they interact with RsaF and have export activities.

605 Alternatively, RsaF may play a role in maintaining the integrity and function of the outer
606 membrane that acts as a protective layer against antimicrobial compounds. Thus, the absence of
607 RsaF could result in outer membrane perturbation and leakage, leading to increased U
608 permeability, accumulation, and susceptibility. A defective outer membrane could also cause
609 increased sensitivity to antibiotics if a defective outer membrane no longer acts as a barrier to the
610 antibiotics. It is well known that outer membrane integrity affects susceptibility of microbes to
611 antimicrobial compounds (61), especially those with hydrophobic properties. The fact that the
612 *rsaF_a* mutant is sensitive to the detergent SDS is a strong indication that outer membrane barrier
613 function is perturbed in these mutants, directly or indirectly caused by RsaF disruption. Studies
614 in *E. coli* have also shown that TolC mutants have a variety of pleiotropic effects including
615 oxidative stress (49, 62, 63), peptidoglycan biosynthesis (64), regulation of outer membrane
616 composition (62, 63, 65), and cell morphology under Fe limitation (66). While it is feasible that
617 these pleiotropic effects occur in RsaF mutants, we note that genes involved in oxidative stress or
618 membrane stress were not significantly differentially regulated in the *rsaF_a* mutant compared to
619 wild type, although our analysis was limited to a small subset of genes for this experiment.

Finally, another promising set of genes that we identified in our Tn-seq screen are *czrR* and *czrA*, which are annotated as a LysR family regulator and sodium bicarbonate transporter, respectively. Marques and coworkers found that CztR auto-regulates its own expression and positively regulates expression of CztA, demonstrating a link between these two proteins (51). They propose that the CztRA system is involved in zinc transport under zinc-limited conditions and that CztR may be involved in regulation of other oxidative stress genes (51). We found that a *czrR* mutant, but not a *czrA* mutant, is more susceptible to U both in growth and survival, suggesting that CztR does not confer U resistance by activating expression of *czrA*. We suspect that the identification of the *czrA* gene in the Tn-seq screen is an artifactual consequence of the organization of *czrA* and *czrR* into a single operon. As a transcriptional regulator, CztR may facilitate U resistance by activating genes that are required for U detoxification, including oxidative stress genes which have been demonstrated to be upregulated in response to U (23)(D. M. Park, unpublished data). Interestingly, these two genes were also previously identified in a transposon mutagenesis screen of *C. crescentus* under cadmium stress (35). Supporting these prior results, we found that *czrR* and *czrA* also exhibited significantly lower fitness under Cd selection in our Tn-seq screen (Table 2), suggesting that the system may be involved in general heavy metal stress response. The magnitude of logFC values for these genes in the U libraries, however, were even higher than in the Cd libraries, indicating that CztR may be more important for growth in U compared to Cd.

In summary, our Tn-seq screen for genes involved in detoxification and stress regulation during U exposure by *C. crescentus* has yielded several novel targets whose identity and function had previously remained elusive through other types of omics analyses (23, 24). The results highlight that genes necessary for longer term growth and survival under U stress do not

significantly overlap with those that are upregulated in response to acute U stress. Our results thus demonstrate the power of using Tn-seq to conduct genotypic profiling to identify novel genes required for fitness under stress conditions. These novel genes are crucial leads to a detailed mechanistic understanding as to how bacteria are able to resist U in the environment and thus have potential utility in informing future bioremediation strategies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS: We thank Lucy Shapiro and Harley McAdams for providing *ΔrecA*, *ΔspoT*, and *fliM::kan* strains and for helpful discussions. We thank Marilis Marques for providing the *ΔcztA* and *ΔcztR* strains and for helpful suggestions. We thank Urs Jenal for providing *ΔclpA* and *ΔclpS* strains. We thank Rong Jiang for assistance with ESSENTIALS and heat map analysis. This work was performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344 (LLNL-JRNL- 670205). This study was supported by a Department of Energy Early Career Research Program award from the Office of Biological and Environmental Sciences (to Y.J.) and the JGI Community Science Program.

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FIGURE LEGENDS:

Fig. 1. Scheme for our Tn-seq method. A hypersaturated *Tn5* mutant library was first generated by kanamycin selection (round 1), after which the library was exposed to U, Cd, or no metal selective pressure (round 2). Genomic DNA was then extracted, sheared by sonication, and Illumina adaptors were added to the sheared fragments. Genomic regions adjacent to the *Tn5* insertions were PCR amplified using an indexed primer and a *Tn5* specific primer. PCR fragments were subsequently sequenced by Illumina paired-end sequencing. The *Tn* insertion site was determined for each mutant and the insertion frequency for each gene was calculated. Genes important for U fitness are expected to have a lower insertion frequency under the U condition compared to the no metal or Cd control conditions.

Fig. 2. Comparison of insertion frequency among mutants under different selective pressure. (A-C) Plots of log(total insertions/gene length) for U library 2 (A), no metal (B), or Cd (C) condition versus the master libraries prior to selection. Genes with lower fitness under U (*rsaF_a*, *rsaF_b*, *czrR*, *czrA*, *spoT*) are highlighted with red circles (●). Genes with lower fitness under Cd (*ccna_02805-02811*, Ni/Co/Cd resistance cassette) are highlighted with orange triangles (▲). Linear regression analyses of the data are shown as blue lines. (D-G) Total insertion counts at representative genome loci with lower U fitness are compared in the master libraries (black), U library 2 (red), no metal library (blue), and Cd library (orange). Regions containing the following genes are shown: (D) *rsaF_b* (*ccna_01379*); (E) *rsaF_a* (*ccna_01067*); (F) *czrA* and *czrR* (*ccna_03624-03625*); and (G) *spoT* (*ccna_01622*). Plots were generated using Mochiview (67), with insertion counts averaged among replicates from the same library.

Fig. 3. Comparison of U survival by mutants identified by Tn-seq. Strains were exposed to no U control (black bars) or 50 μ M uranyl nitrate (gray bars) in 50 mM PIPES buffer at pH 7.0 for 1 h after which CFU/ml were counted (left axis). Red bars represent the fold change in CFU/ml between the U condition and the control (right axis). Error bars represent standard deviations from at least 4 biological replicates. Mutants showing a lower U survival rate (*i.e.*, higher susceptibility to U) compared to wild type are highlighted with asterisks (*p-value < 0.01).

Fig. 4. Transcript levels of select gene candidates in response to U. *C. crescentus* cells were grown in buffered-PYE medium to early exponential phase and spiked without (black bars) or with (gray bars) 350 μ M uranyl nitrate. Samples were collected 30 min after spike-in and transcript levels were determined by Nanostring analysis. Log₂ expression values are presented and error bars represent standard deviations from 3 biological replicates. Transcripts significantly up-regulated are highlighted with asterisks (*p-value < 0.01).

Fig. 5. Comparison of doubling times of mutant strains in the presence or absence of U. Mutants were grown in buffered-PYE medium to early exponential phase and spiked without (black bars) or with (gray bars) 350 μ M uranyl nitrate. Doubling times were estimated based on OD₆₀₀ values during growth. Error bars represent standard deviations from 3 biological replicates. Mutants showing a significant increase in doubling time compared to wild type under the same conditions (-/+ U) are highlighted with asterisks (*p-value < 0.02, **p-value < 0.0001).

Fig. 6. Comparison of U accumulation by wild type and *rsaF* mutants. Amounts represent U accumulated by 8×10^7 cells after 1 h U exposure in 50 mM PIPES buffer at pH 7.0. Error bars represent standard deviations from 3 biological replicates. Mutants showing higher U accumulation compared to wild type are highlighted with asterisks (*p-value < 0.002).

Fig. 7. Comparison of sensitivity of wild type and *rsaF* mutants to different antimicrobials using an agar disk diffusion assay. Diameters of zones of inhibition are shown in mm. Tet, tetracycline; Cd, cadmium sulfate; U, uranyl nitrate; SDS, sodium dodecyl sulfate; H₂O₂, hydrogen peroxide. Wt, wild type, black bars; *rsaF_a* mutant, gray bars; *rsaF_b* mutant, striped bars; *rsaF_aF_b* double mutant, crossed bars. Error bars represent standard deviations from 3 biological replicates. Mutants showing a significant increase in diameter compared to wild type are highlighted with asterisks (*p-value < 0.02, **p-value < 0.01).

Fig. 8. Comparison of cell survival of wild type and *spoT* mutant in response to U in the presence or absence of glucose. Strains were exposed to no U (black bars) or 50 μ M uranyl nitrate (gray bars) supplemented with and without 1% glucose in 50 mM PIPES buffer at pH 7.0 for 1 h after which CFU/ml were counted (left axis). Red bars represent the fold change in CFU/ml between the U condition and the control (right axis). Error bars represent standard deviations from 4 biological replicates. Higher susceptibility to U compared to wild type is highlighted with an asterisk (*p-value < 0.01).

Fig. 9. Comparison of U biomineralization activity and cell survival of mutant strains under U mineralizing conditions. A) U biomineralization activity. Wild type (■), *phoY* mutant (●), *rsaF_a* mutant (▲), *rsaF_b* mutant (◆), *rsaF_arsaF_brsaA* triple mutant (□), *cztR* mutant (○), *cztA* mutant (Δ), and *spoT* mutant (◇). Error bars represent standard deviations from 3 biological replicates. B) Cell survival under U mineralizing conditions after 6 h incubation. CFU/ml (left axis) at t=0 h (black bars) and t=6 h (gray bars). Fold change in CFU/ml between 0 and 6 h (red bars, right axis). Mutants showing significantly higher susceptibility to U compared to wild type are highlighted with asterisks (*p-value < 0.03; **p-value < 0.01).

TABLES:

Table 1. Statistics for Tn-seq analysis.

Library	Replicate ^a	Total reads	Reads (%) after filtering	Reads (%) mapped to genome	No. unique insertions	Insertion resolution (bp/insertion)
Master Tn library 1	1	4,622,651	3,879,040 (84)	1,128,991 (29)	254,837	14
Master Tn library 2	1	6,821,312	5,648,392 (83)	1,655,997 (29)	299,848	12
Uranium library 1 ^b	1	5,258,684	4,475,230 (85)	1,407,024 (31)	172,227	21
	2	4,533,632	4,105,593 (91)	471,566 (11)	102,123	36
Uranium library 2 ^c	1	4,345,587	3,535,408 (81)	1,570,567 (44)	229,517	16
	2	3,769,970	3,073,357 (82)	1,421,032 (46)	214,127	17
	3	5,484,725	4,452,924 (81)	2,078,630 (47)	233,053	16
Uranium library 3 ^c	1	5,281,822	4,168,258 (79)	2,382,532 (57)	172,368	21
No metal library	1	10,718,904	9,297,151 (87)	1,160,988 (12)	150,231	25
	2	8,977,647	7,058,714 (79)	2,848,953 (40)	215,835	17
Cadmium library	1	4,771,097	3,685,040 (77)	2,342,281 (64)	213,944	17

^a Replicates are different DNA isolations from the same Tn mutant library.

^b Uranium library 1 was conducted at 250 μ M uranyl nitrate.

^c Uranium libraries 2 and 3 were conducted at 275 μ M uranyl nitrate.

935 **Table 2. Select gene candidates with low U fitness.**

Gene	Annotation	Log ₂ FC compared to master libraries				
		Uranium library 1	Uranium library 2	Uranium library 3	No metal library	Cadmium library
CCNA_00080	LexA-like transcriptional repressor	-1.17*	-2.43**	-1.59**	-0.70	-0.31
CCNA_03858	<i>secB</i> , protein translocase subunit	-1.67**	-1.97**	-3.32**	-0.14	1.46**
CCNA_03624	<i>cztA</i> , sodium bicarbonate cotransporter	-1.79**	-1.54**	-2.58**	-0.14	-0.79*
CCNA_00285	acetylglutamate kinase	-0.97*	-1.50**	-2.00**	-0.87	0.55
CCNA_01379	<i>rsaF_b</i> , type I secretion outer membrane protein	-0.93*	-1.41**	-1.91**	-0.13	0.20
CCNA_03625	<i>cztR</i> , LysR family transcriptional regulator	-1.29**	-1.41**	-2.26**	-0.06	-0.70
CCNA_03498	MarR/EmrR family transcriptional regulator	-0.98*	-1.36**	-2.23**	-0.42	0.42
CCNA_01521	hypothetical protein	-0.98**	-1.20**	-3.29**	-0.69	-0.12
CCNA_00290	autotransporter protein	-0.98**	-1.04**	-1.74**	-0.54	-0.77**
CCNA_02552	<i>clpS</i> , Clp protease adaptor protein	-0.14	-1.39**	-1.99**	-0.54	1.19**
CCNA_02553	<i>clpA</i> , Clp protease ATP-binding subunit	0.21	-1.31**	-1.33**	-0.36	1.85**
CCNA_02140	<i>fliM</i> , flagellar motor switch protein	-1.14**	-1.03**	-0.58*	-0.90	-0.77**
CCNA_01067	<i>rsaF_a</i> , type I secretion outer membrane protein	-0.24	-1.03**	-0.91**	-0.37	1.54**
CCNA_01061	<i>rsaE</i> , type I secretion adaptor protein RsaE	-0.06	-1.32**	0.23	0.03	2.46**
CCNA_01622	ppGpp hydrolase-synthetase RelA/SpoT	-0.37	-0.98**	-0.12	-0.25	-0.02

* p-value < 0.05.

** p-value < 0.01.